Chapter 2
Review of Literature

Introduction:
An Organization’s goal can be achieved when people put in their best efforts. The efforts must be in the right directions. The goal must be explained to the team players (employees) and periodical assessment of the performance is to be done to understand, whether the team players are towards the directions expected under the organizational objectives or not. Labour productivity is the result of efforts shown from the labour input made into it.

Where the management also takes curiosity in finding out how effective does the available resources have been utilized by the team players in producing the results and if any deviations or problems unfavour to the organization and to the employees identified, immediate necessary steps is to be taken and communicate to the employees and to remedy them in order to improve labour productivity. Labour productivity in today’s global changes in terms of technology, climate, inflation, political influence, social influence has much more to concern with, whereas in an organization under social context, the organizational working environment matters much from all apart from technology and machineries. People tend to behave differently under different situations, they are inspired and influenced with either by positive signals or by negative signals and behaves accordingly in an organization. It is the inspiration makes people to behave towards an object. The right inspirations with right tools at right time will produce the right results and even some times better productive results than expected. We can see various researchers and prominent authors have substantiated the above explanations in our following chapters.

Definition of productivity:
In simple term Productivity is the relationship between the output generated by the production and the input provided to create this output.
Productivity = \frac{\text{OUTPUT}}{\text{INPUT}} \hspace{1cm}

Productivity is defined as the efficient use of resources like materials, labour, capital, land, energy and information in the production of various goods and service. Further productivity may be conceived of as a measure of the technical or engineering efficiency of production. The production function depicts production performance and productivity is the measure of it. According to Jorgenson and Griliches – Professors at Harvard University (1967) as per the formula Productivity = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}}, changes in input and output have to be measured inclusive of both quantitative and qualitative changes. Productivity is related to the concept of efficiency. While productivity is the amount of output produced relative to the amount of resources (time and money) that go into the production, efficiency is the value of output relative to the cost of inputs used. Productivity improves when the quantity of output increases relative to the quantity of input. Efficiency improves, when the cost of inputs used is reduced relative the value of output. A change in technology, however, might allow a firm to increase output with a given quantity of inputs. It is further said that a comfortable employee, the theory maintains, can produce more than a counterpart who struggles through the day. Increases in productivity also can influence society more broadly, by improving living standards, and creating income. They are central to the process generating economic growth and capital accumulations. The concept of productivity is increasingly being recognized as more pertinent than competitiveness. Indeed, some economists argue that the whole notion of a competitive nation should be abandoned as a term having much meaning for economic prosperity.

According to Michael Porter (1979), the principal economic goal of a nation is to produce a high and rising standard of living for its citizens. The ability to do so depends not on the amorphous notion of competitiveness but on the productivity with which a nation’s resources (Labour and Capital) are employed. Thus the only meaningful concept of competitiveness at the national level is national productivity\(^1\).

According to the words of Drucker (1954), the enterprise must control wealth producing

resources to discharge its purpose of creating a customer. It therefore has the function of utilizing these resources productively. This is the administrative function of business in its economic aspect it is called productivity.

Productivity is a relative concept and is related to the efficiency with which resources are used to tune out a given amount of products. An increase in production doesn’t necessarily mean increase in productivity because production may increase due to more input while productivity remains constant or even less. For higher productivity, labour plays a vital role in an organization.

Any employee performing the task for an agreed wages is called a labour. Labour is often sold for salary, money or wage. Wage labour is the socioeconomic relationship between a worker and an employer in which the worker sells their labour under a contract (employment), and the employer buys it, often in a labour market. The product of labour becomes the employer’s property. A wage labourer is a person whose primary means of income is to sell labour. The most common form of wage labour currently is a contract in which a free worker sells his labour for a predetermined time (e.g. a few months or year), in return for a money, wage or salary. According to Karl Marx, wage labour is defined as the mode of production where the worker sells their labour power as a commodity. With the efficiency of labour, the organization can yield better labour productivity.

**Labour Productivity:**

In labour economics, labour productivity is a measure of the efficiency of the labour force. It is usually measured as output per hour of all people. When comparing labour productivity one mostly looks at the change over time. Labour productivity is defined by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to be the ratio of volume measure of output to a volume measure of input. The three most commonly used measures of input are: hours worked; workforce jobs; and number of people in employment. Measured labour productivity will vary as a function of both other input factors and the efficiency with which the factors of production are used (total factor productivity). So two firms or countries may have equal total factory productivity.
(productive technologies) but because one has more capital to use, labour productivity will be higher. The factors affecting labour productivity or the performance of individual work roles are of broadly the same type as those that affect the performance of manufacturing firms as a whole. They include as per the OECD Manual (2002) it was stated that:

1. Physical-organic, location and technological factors.
2. Cultural belief-value and individual attitudinal, motivational and behavioral factors
3. International influences – e.g. levels of innovativeness and efficiency on the part of the owners and managers of inward investing foreign companies.
4. Managerial – organizational and wider economic and political-legal environments.
5. Levels of flexibility in internal labour markets and the organization of work activities – e.g., the presence or absence of traditional craft demarcation lines and barriers to occupational entry.
6. Individual rewards and payment systems, and the effectiveness of personnel managers and others in recruiting, training, communicating with, and performance-motivating employees on the basis of pay and other incentives.

The primary responsibilities of skillfully utilizing the resources are that of the management. The production capacity of a unit is the result of many factors and yet all these factors are translated into productivity only when the human elements are introduced. Employees in an organization can increase or decrease their productivity as they wish. There is a need to motivate the work force to produce the desired results.

Labour productivity can be improved through…

a. Employees working more skillfully to reduce rejects and to make more efficient utilization of other resources.

b. Employees working productively for a greater proportion of time.

c. Reducing the work content of a job by modifying the product design, eliminating unnecessary activities and re-arranging the necessary activities.

d. To improve effectiveness of all employees by suitable motivation.
To improve labour productivity, we have to think how best an employee can be stimulated towards greater productivity. According to Peter Drucker, it is the manager, who, through the process of management brings about social change by using new technologies and techniques in the production processes. He further argues that Manager is the agent of change in today’s industrial society and management has a central social function; they stress constantly the purpose of management which is not just to be efficient, but to be productive, for the human being, for economy and for society. It is also said that individualization in the organization be promoted².

The introduction of thorough going policies of individual evaluation and merit pay require a very substantial commitment of organizational resources to administer the system in a way that is likely to be seen as impartial. The objective of individualization is to increase the commitment of employees towards their organizations. However, if there is little confidence in procedures, it may be seen to involve little more than favoritism, creating a sense of injustice and greater distrust of management. Even where there is a will to introduce change, there may be substantial problems in achieving a coherent relationship between different human resources management policies. For instance, policies like individualized pay systems may make it less likely that employees will happily participate in collective activities such as quality circles.

Finally, such policies are likely to be successful primarily where there is a relatively stable environment in which longer – term career planning is feasible and there is a reasonable assurance that assessed merit will be rewarded in terms of enhanced promotion opportunities. If these things are not in its place to keep the employees morale high, then these may lead as one of its cause of absenteeism and labour turnover in the said organization.

The workers remain absent for various reasons of which only some may be genuine. Sickness is responsible for a considerable part of absenteeism at most places. There is a

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² Lakshmi Nadkavni- Sociology of Industrial Worker - Chapteriv-Rewat Publication—Jaipur and New Delhi
greater percentage of absenteeism during the night shifts than in the day shifts, swing to
the greater discomfort of working during night time. Absenteeism has been found to be
higher among women than men due to women’s house-hold duties, maternity leave etc.
Workers below 25 years and above 40 years and those who live without their families
also record higher absenteeism. To reduce absenteeism, proper conditions of work in the
work place like improving conditions of works and living for the workers and make
them feel contended and happy. Greeting a sense of responsibility among the workers in
industry will also reduce absenteeism. Introduction of an incentive wage scheme and
linking wages and bonus with production will also be helpful in checking absenteeism
and labour turnover. Labour turnover is the rate of change in the working staff of a
concern during a definite period. Higher labour turnover is harmful to the efficiency of
the worker as well as to the quality and quantity of production. It also affects the
organization because it leads to less solidarity among the workers who move frequently
from industry to industry. Improvements of working conditions, introduction of
attractive labour policies will make the labour force more stable than at present. All these
lies in the hands of the Human Resource Managers of the organization to device a growth
policy through the perspectives of business and through the perspectives of employee’s
involvement. Thus understanding organization design approaches for growth leading
design processes, and building the capabilities for growth into the enterprise are critical
strategic contributions for HR professionals.

The organization’s design configures resources to support the growth strategy, and
provides the context in which the scarce talent of the organization operates. To play this
new role, Human Resource Manager will have to develop new skills in organization
design, play new roles in helping the business think through how it should be structured
and build growth routines into the organization. The challenge of rapid growth faces
most companies in today’s highly interdependent, competitive global economy. Human
Resource Manager is staring at an incredible opportunity to increase its impact on
organizational performance and becomes a true strategic partner by contributing to the
organization and work design challenges that enable growth. This is an important focus
for Human Resource Manager because talent management is inextricably linked to
organization and work systems designs in a way that each constrains the other. By expanding its focus to include organization and work design, Human Resource Manager Multiples its influence on both people and business performance growth.

Growth agendas present a compelling need for this expanded Human Resource contribution, whether seeking organic growth in new markets, expanding through developing innovative products, services and business models, or growing through acquisitions and partnerships, companies face the need to find and integrate new resources, realign existing ones, and reconfigure core design features to handle the increased size and complexity that accompanies rapid growth. Different growth scenarios present different challenges. Thus gaining organization design expertise and leadership is a complicated task, but it can make an appreciable difference in organization effectiveness. For organization to be effective in terms of Human Resource Capabilities, it is must that the organization must be designed as learning organization.

Peter Senge (1990) in the Fifth Discipline describes learning organization as places where people continually expand their capacity to create the results that they desire, where new patterns of thinking are nurtured, where there is consideration for collective aspiration and where people are continually learning how to learn together. It promotes exchange of information’s between employees hence creating a more knowledgeable workforce. This produces a very flexible organization where people will accept and adapt to ideas and changes, exploiting opportunities for innovation, which will come from all direction.

According to Edwards and Usher’s organizations as well as individuals are required to keep up or be ahead of the bewildering pace of change and casting themselves as learning organizations. The workforce at all levels needs to think change, to have a positive attitude towards and be prepared to accept change. He further describes that the learning organizations offers a promising opportunity to create new and successful resources and competences as potentially great and manifold opportunities to learn are provided for the corporation. That in turn makes significant innovation successes more likely. Innovation
as a function of entrepreneur requires embedding entrepreneurial spirit among people in organization, for continuous improvement through increment innovation and also for radical innovation. Learning organization will be building block for entrepreneurial spirit and innovation in the existing organization. It enables the corporation in the best possible case to permanently learn and, in that way to systematically generate innovative resources and competences. Tools for gaining competitiveness like corporate entrepreneurship that builds on an innovation regime, are systematically generated in learning organization competencies of people aligned with strategy of organization. It brings in general the organizational effectiveness as a whole.

Organizational Effectiveness:
Organizational Effectiveness is a phenomenon that can be applied to all different types of groups, teams and of course business organizations. Wherever groups operate in a competitive environment, the question whether they are organized right almost automatically comes up. And, subsequently, the question of how to do better than others is posed after that. Organization re complex and the result of multiple guiding actions. As Alfred Chandler already pointed out in his ground-breaking work as Strategy and Structure in the early 1960’s, in most cases the strategy comes first. It is – or at least should be – the overriding designing principle for the organizational structure.

When Henry ford began to produce his T-Car by suing assembly line in 1913, this was certainly a radical innovation in terms of organization management. The scientific foundation of the proactive and innovative car manufacturer was provided by Frederick W.Taylor, who invented in 1911, The Principles of Scientific Management, better known as the Taylorism. While for was focusing as streamlined production that allowed producing as many cars as possible, Taylor was highlighting the principle of efficient allocation of work by segregating work steps in the smallest units possible and synthesizing them later on. Both men had one goal in common. A more effective organization. By strictly applying Taylorism like Henry Ford did the concepts of compartmentalization and organizational boundaries were introduced. The work force was systematically divided according to specific functions and specific skill sets.
Although the organization was considered to be more effective in terms of output, some restrictions were soon clearly evident. Communication and new product ideas could not flow around like they did previously when business were arranged in houses or workshops. Innovation and social fulfillment through work were eroding. Allocation of work required reconciliation of activities. Communication had to be re-arranged to fulfill business needs. Thus, scientists like Henri Fayol further improved Taylor’s work. He, for example, introduced the Fayol – Bridge that allowed direct communication between departments without involving the manager level. Back in 1916, this was truly a breakthrough and is, even today, still relevant. This short detour to the history of organization management should be mandatory for all work in this arena. It stresses the basics of what organizational effectiveness is all about. In today’s challenging business world, companies have to cope with the overarching basic question. How do we allocate and organize our work? Further to be more effective in terms of its function, it is imperative to study the human behavior at work. Human behavior is the collection of behaviors exhibited by human beings and influenced by culture, attitudes, emotions, values, ethics, authority, rapport, hypnosis, persuasion, coercion and/or genetics. In sociology, behavior is considered as having no meaning, being not directed at other people and thus is the most basic human action. Under social norms, written by anthropologist Rober Ardrey, states that it is influence of social pressure that is perceived by the individual (normative beliefs) to perform or not to perform a certain behaviors. Thus as a industrial leader one need to interact with their followers, peers, seniors, and others, whose support they need in order to accomplish the industrial objectives. To gain their support, he must be able to understand them and motivate them. To understand and motivate people, he must know human nature. Human nature is the common qualities of all human beings. People behave according to certain principles of human nature. According to Richard Beckhard, the organizational development is defined as: a planned effort, organization-wide, managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health, through planned interventions in the organization’s ‘processes’, using behavioral science knowledge.
Kurt Zadek Lewin (1947), German born psychologists is one of the modern pioneers of social, organizational, and applied psychology. He is the founding father of organizational development theory. Lewin suggested that neither nature (inborn tendencies) nor nurture (how experience in life shape individuals) alone can account for individual’s behavior and personalities, but rather that both nature and nurture interact to shape each person. Organizational culture comprises the attitudes, experiences, beliefs and value of an organization.

Edgar Schein (2004) a MIT Sloan School of Management Professor, defines organizational culture as, the residue of success within an organization. According to Schein, culture is the most difficult organizational attribute to change, out lasting organizational products, services, and leadership and all other physical attributes of the organization. His organizational model illuminates culture from the standpoint of the observer, described by three cognitive levels of organizational culture. At the first and most cursory level of Schien’s model is organizational attributes that can be seen, felt and heard by the uninitiated observer. Included are the facilities, officers, furnishings, visible awards and recognition, the way that its members dress, and how each person visibly interacts with each other and with organizational outsiders. The next level according to Schien’s deals with the professed culture of an organization’s members. At this level, company slogans, mission statements and other operational creeds are often expressed, and local and personal values are widely expressed within the organization. Organizational behavior at this level usually can be studied by interviewing the organization’s membership and using questionnaires together attitudes about organizational membership. At the third and deepest level, the organization’s tacit assumptions are found. He says that these are the elements of culture that are unseen and not cognitively identified in everyday interactions between organizational members. Additionally, these are the elements of culture which are often taboo to discuss inside the organization. Many of these unspoken rules exist without the conscious knowledge of the membership. Those with sufficient experience to understand this deepest level of organizational culture usually become acclimatized to its attributes overtime, thus reinforcing the invisibility of their existence. He further suggests that surveys and casual
interviews with organizational members cannot draw out these attributes – rather much more in depth means is required to first identify then understand organizational culture at this level. Notably, culture at this level is the underlying and driving element often missed by organizational behaviorists. Using Schien’s model, understanding paradoxical organizational behaviors becomes more apparent. For instance, an organization can profess highly aesthetic and moral standards at the second level of Schien’s model while simultaneously displaying curiosity opposing behavior at the third and deepest level of culture. Superficially, organizational rewards can imply one organizational norm but at the deepest level imply something completely different. This insight offers an understanding of the difficulty that organizational new comers have in assimilating organizational culture and why it takes time to become acclimatized. It also explains why organizational change agents usually fail to achieve their goals: underlying the tacit culture norms are generally not understood before would-be change agents begin their actions. He says merely understanding culture at the deepest level may be insufficient to institute cultural change because the dynamics of interpersonal relationships (often under threatening conditions ) are added to the dynamics of organizational culture while attempts are made to institute desired change in the behavior pattern of an individual.

E.E.Lawler writes: Human Behavior generally is predictable if we know how the person perceived the situation and what is important to him or her. While people’s behavior may not appear to be rational to an outsider, there is reason to believe it usually is intended to be rational and it seen as rational by them. An observer often sees behavior as non rational because the observer does not have access to the same information or does not perceive the environment in the same way. It is further describes that it is possible for managers to hire, fire, promote and make job changes quite effectively using only performance data (observable behavior) as their criteria. It emphasizes that whether or not they ever understand the behavior, that is, can explain why it occurs, is another matter entirely, one which requires developing some ways of explaining what goes on inside him or her. It is further said that the leaders tend to know more about how their cars operate then they do about what motivates and drives the people they spend eight to ten hours a day with. And it is the people who carry out the tasks, projects, and major
strategies in any organization. And yet how much do we as leaders really know and understand about what inspires some one to get out of bed in the morning and want to go to work. When a leader understands this it can make the difference between frustration and joy, mediocrity and greatness, success and the failure. If more leaders really understood human motivation and dynamics it will have spectacular impact on organizational work environments, performance and employee satisfaction says E.E.Lawler.

According to Curt Coffman and Gabriela Gonzalez – Molina state, “The success of your organization doesn’t depend on your understanding of economics, or organizational development or marketing. It depends, quite simply, on your understanding of human psychology: how each individual employee connects with your company and how each individual employee connects with your customer’s”. Psychologists Carl Jung said that people either derive energy from relating to other or from internal thoughts. They also tend to gather information in different ways, either by focusing on data, or by intuitively seeing the big picture. They express themselves in different ways, either with a focus on rational thinking or a feelings and values. And they also have tendencies to make decisions rapidly with planning and organization, or to be more spontaneous and pressure prompted. And in an learning organization, the organization will have better work environment and the employees job satisfaction levels are mostly tends to be higher because the employees were involved in building their skills and knowledge to meet the eventual and unforeseen challenges and become more competent in their domain which in turn happens to be more satisfied towards their job and in other side its leaders understands the needs of their employees and help sustaining the level of job satisfaction in its long run.

**Job Satisfaction:**

Operationally, the term job satisfaction refers to the degree of favorableness or unfavorable ness with which employees in any organization view their work. One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924 – 1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School,
Sought to find the effects of various conditions (mostly notably illumination) on workers productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.  

Edwin A.Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren’t met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn’t value that facet. Whereas Frederick Hertzberg’s two factor theory (also known as Motivator Hygiene Theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. This theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions. Job satisfaction can be an important indicator of how employees feel about their jobs and a predictor of work behaviors such as organizational citizenship, absenteeism, and turnover. Further, job satisfaction can partially mediate the relationship of personality variables and deviant work behaviors.

One common research find is that job satisfaction is correlated with life satisfaction. This when other variables such as non-work satisfaction and core self-evaluations are taken into account. An important find for organizations to note is that job satisfaction has a rather tenuous correlation to productivity on the job. This is a vital piece of information to researchers and businesses, as the idea that satisfaction and job performance are directly related to one another. Job satisfaction is the results of various factors in an organization as said above and it is worth to mention here that employee engagement is also a vital issue in this process of this exercise. As employee productivity is clearly connected with employee engagement; creating an environment that encourages employee engagement is considered to be essential in the effective management of human capital. The factors that influence employee engagements are as follows:

- Employee perceptions of job importance: According to a 2006 study by Gerard Seijts and Dan Crim, an employee attitude towards the job’s importance and the company had the greatest impact on loyalty and customer service.
- Employee clarity of job expectations: “If expectations are not clear and basic materials and equipment not provided, negative emotions such as boredom or resentment may result, and the employee may then become focused on surviving more than thinking about how he can help the organization succeed.”
- Career advancement / improvement opportunities: “Plant supervisors and managers indicated that many plant improvements were being made outside the suggestion system, where employees initiated changes in order to reap the bonuses generated by the subsequent cost savings.”

• Regular feedback and dialogue with superiors: Feedback is the key to giving employees a sense of where they’re going, but many organizations are remarkably bad at giving it. What I really wanted to hear was, thanks, you did a good job. But all my boss did was hand me a cheque., says Gerard Seijts from his study.

• Quality of working relationship with peers, superiors and subordinates. If employee’s relationship with their managers is fractured, then no amount of perks will persuade the employees to perform at top levels. Employee engagement is a direct reflection of how employees feel about their relationship with the boss.

• Perceptions of the ethos and values of the organization: Inspiration and values is the most important of the six drivers in our engaged performance model. Inspirational leadership is the ultimate perk. In its absence, it is unlikely to engage employees.

• Effective Industrial Employee communications: As per the findings of Watson Wyatt Worldwide a global research organization – USA point out trends of the last six years in their 2007/2008 global study and identifies the best practices that offer the greatest potential for increasing communication effectiveness. The key findings are…

1. Companies with the most effective employee communications programs provided a 91% total return to shareholders from 2002 to 2006, compared with 62% for firms that communicated least effectively. Moreover, a significant improvement in communication effectiveness is associated with a 15.7% increase in market value.

2. Effective employee communication is a leadership indicator of financial performance.

3. Firms that communicate effectively are four times as likely to report high levels of employee engagement as firms that communicate less effectively.

4. The percentage of companies that are measuring employee behavioral change has increased almost 25 percentage points since 2003/2004 study.

5. Since the 2003/2004 study, there has been a decline in the number of companies that take the time to explain the reasons behind major decisions and give employees the opportunity to provide input into decisions that affect them and into how the work gets done.
6. Participating companies in Asia-Pacific are better than companies elsewhere at communicating customer need and being open with employees about matters that affect them.

According to Patricia Soldati, a former President and COO of a National Finance Corporation – USA who formed The Conference Board, a prestigious, non-profit business membership and research organization located in the U.S. This group provides its members – top executives and industry leaders from the most respected corporations in the United States and around the world – with vital business intelligence and forward-looking best practices. In 2006, The Conference Board published employee engagement, a review of Current Research and its implications. According to this report, twelve major studies on employee engagement had been published over the prior four years by top research firms such as Gallup, Towers Perrin, Blessing White, the Corporate Leadership council and other. Each of the studies used different definitions and, collectively, came up with 26 key drivers of engagement. For example, some studies emphasized the underlying cognitive issues and others on the underlying emotional issues.

The Conference Board looked across this mass of data and came up with a blended definition and key themes that crossed all of the studies. They define employee engagement as a heightened emotional connection that an employee fells for his or her organization, that influences him or her to exert greater discretionary effort to his or her work. At least four of the studies agreed on these eight key drivers.

Trust and integrity – how well managers communicate and walk the talk
Nature of the job – is it mentally stimulating day-to-day?
Line of sight between employee performance and company performance – does the employee understand how their work contributes to the company’s performance?

Career Growth Opportunities – Are there future opportunities for growth?
Pride about the company – How much self-esteem does the employee feel by being associated with their company? Coworkers/team members—significantly influences ones

level of engagement. Employee development-Is the company making an effort to develop the employee’s skills? Relationship with one’s manager - Does the employee value his or her relationship with his or her manager?

Other key findings include the fact that larger companies are more challenged to engage employees than are smaller companies, while employee age drives a clear difference in the importance of certain drivers. Further they stated as instance that employees, under age 44 rank challenging environment/career growth opportunities much higher than do older employees, who value recognition and reward for their contributions. But all studies, all locations and all ages agreed that the direct relationship with one’s manager is the strongest of all drivers. In the final analysis according to the study, one wonders whether employee engagement is just another trendy concept, or really a big deal? But according to the report, employee engagement is a very big deal. There is clear and mounting evidence that high levels of employees engagement keenly correlates to individual, group and corporate performance in areas such as retention, turnover, productivity, customer service and loyalty. And this is not just by small margins. While differences varied from study to study, highly engaged employees outperform their disengaged counterparts by a whopping 20-28 percentage points! Finally, there is some evidence that companies are responding to this challenge by flattening their chains of command, providing training for first-line managers and with better internal communications. The board further concludes that changes won’t happen overnight, but with such significant upside to the bottom line – they might happen more quickly than one think.

Thus Employee engagement is a concept that is generally viewed as managing discretionary effort, that is, when employees have choices, they will act in a way that furthers their organizations interests. An engaged employee is a person who is fully involved in, and enthusiastic about, his or her work. Author Tim Rutledge in his book, Getting Engaged: The new workplace loyalty, explains that truly engaged employees are attracted to, and inspired by, their work (I want to do this), committed (I am dedicated to the success of what I am doing), and fascinated (I love what I am doing). Studies have
statistically demonstrated that engaged employees are more productive, more profitable, more Customer-focussed, safer, and less likely to leave their employer. It was found that employees with the highest level of commitment perform 20% better and are 87% less likely to leave the organization, which indicates that engagement is linked to organizational performance and employee empowerment. Employee empowerment in the workplace is regarded by critics as more a Pseudo-empowerment exercise, the idea of which is to change the attitudes of workers, so as to make them work harder rather than giving them any real power, and Wilkinson (1998) refers to this as “attitudinal shaping”. However, recent research suggests that the opportunity to exercise personal discretion/choice (and complete meaningful work) is an important element contributing to employee engagement and well-being\textsuperscript{10}. There is evidence (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990) that initiative and motivation are increased when people have a more positive attributual style. This influences self-belief, resilience when faced with set-backs, and the ability to visualize one self over coming problems. The implication is that ‘empowerment’ suits some more than other’s, and should be positioned in the broader and wider context of an ‘enabling work’ environment\textsuperscript{11}.

According to Denis, a researcher and author of Wise Geek says Employee empowerment is a term used to express the ways in which non-managerial staff can make autonomous decisions with out consulting a manager. These self-willed decisions can be small or large depending upon the degree of power with which the company wishes to invest in employees. Employee empowerment can begin with training and converting a whole company to an empowerment model. Conversely it may merely means giving employees the ability to make some decisions on their own. The thinking behind this social aspect of employee empowerment is that it gives power to the individual and thus makes for happier employees. Thus by offering employees choice and participation on a more invested in their company, and view themselves as a representative of such. When

\textsuperscript{10}Lockwood, Nancy R (2007)."Leveraging Employee Engagement for Competitive Advantage" P 1-11

employees feel as though they have choice and can make direct decisions, this does often lead to a greater feeling of self-worth. In a model where power is closely tied to sense of self, having some power is a valuable thing.

An employee who does not feel constantly watched and criticized is more likely to consider work as a positive environment, rather than a negative one. It is further suggested that one easy way to begin employee empowerment in the workplace is to install a suggestion box, where workers can make suggestions without fear of punishment or retribution. However, simply placing a suggestion box somewhere is only the first step. Managers must then be willing to read and consider suggestions he suggests. They might provide a forum where Questions or suggestions receive a response, like a weekly or monthly newsletter he further suggests. In addition, he adds that managers can hold a once monthly meeting open to employees where all suggestions are addressed. In this exercise of empowering employees at least some suggestions have to be approved in order for employees to feel that they are having some impact on their company. He further warns that Failure to approve or implement any suggestions reinforces that all the power belongs to the managers and not the workers., which may end up finally in dissatisfaction among the workers. Social scientists dealing with the human aspects of industrial relations, generally agree that the health of any industrial organization depends on the job satisfaction of the majority of its personnel. It is directly related to both one’s expectations of the job tasks and the rewards that one’s actions entail. Also, job satisfaction depends largely on the nature of one’s environment off the job and hence it arises from a complex set of circumstances in the same way that motivation does.

Industrial managers, private or public, and their technical and professional associates, rather than industrial workers, have the more significant and decisive role in industrialization. They are the vanguard of the future. It is they who largely create and apply the new technology, who determines the transformations in skills and responsibilities, who influence the impact of such changes upon the work force and who exercise leadership in a technological society.
The initiative for the technological revolution and its consequences for the work force are concentrated more largely in the hands of managers. This view places an even heavier responsibility upon industrial managers, upon their selection, training and norms of conduct, be they private or public. The industrialization process utilizes a level of technology for in advance of that of earlier societies. Moreover, the associated scientific revolution generates continual and rapid changes in production methods, products and in technology. The continuing changes in science and the technology and production methods inherent in industrialization have a number of decisive consequences for workers, managers, the state and their inter relations. The science and technology of industrialization is based upon research organizations, universities, research institutes, laboratories and specialized departments of enterprises.

The methods and procedure of scientific research are likewise applied to a variety of economic and social problems. It is an axiom of scientific inquiry that the frontiers of knowledge are virtually limitless, and research experience shows that accretions to knowledge yield further unsuspected relations and conclusions in unending vistas.

The industrial system requires a wide range of skills and professional competency broadly distributed throughout the workforce. These specialized human resources are indispensable to the science, technology and production methods of industrialism. Indeed the creation of such a highly skilled and professional labour force is one of the major problems of society in transition to industrialism. The absence of a specialized and highly qualified labour force is no less serious an impediment to industrial growth than a shortage of capital goods. The professional, technical and managerial component of the labour force, private and public, is particularly strategic since it largely carries the responsibility of developing and ordering the manual and clerical labour force\(^\text{12}\).

There is a mismatch between the notions of vocational relevance advocated in government training policy and the realities of the labour market experienced by young

\(^{12}\) Elark Kerr, John T.Dunlop, Frederick H.Harbison and Charles A.Myer (1960)- Industrialism and Industrial Man - Harvard University press - P-30-
government training policy and the realities of the labour market experienced by young people, what remains less clear is how ‘skills training involving basic literacy, practical competence in the use of tools, machinery and office operations will enable young people to make their way in the increasingly competitive world to the 1980’s Under Industrial sociology, the object of Personnel Management is 1. Effective utilization of human resources, 2. Desirable working relationship between superiors and subordinates and employees and employer and 3. Maximum individual development. The requirements for accomplishing these objectives are:

1. Obtaining capable people or training the people to meet capability requirements: 
   For obtaining this capable manpower, it is necessary to know what they will be required to do, there should be a plan for the organization of the task to be assigned for these
2. manpower and there should be a definition of the responsibility of each position. 
   There should also be a determination of the qualifications necessary for effective performance to each position.
3. Utilization of their efforts effectively: - Each person must know what is expected of him. He should understand the scope of his responsibilities, and
4. should be given the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills and help, necessary for effective performance of his work.
5. Performance Recognition: His work must afford opportunities for development and utilization of his capacities and skills must timely be evaluated and should be suitably recognized for his accomplishments.

Harry Braverma (1974) in his book “Labor and Monopoly Capital”, wrote that the Degradation of work in the twentieth century, which provided a critical analysis of scientific management. Braverman demonstrated several mechanisms of control in both the factory blue collar and clerical white collar labour force. Braverman’s contribution to the sociology of work and industry (i.e., industrial sociology) has been important and his theories of the labour process continue to inform teaching and research. Social

research refers to research conducted by social scientists, but also within other disciplines such as social policy, human psychology, industrial sociology etc.

Social scientists use many different methods in order to describe, explore and understand social life. Same in industrial sociology, the social scientists use different models and methods to find the employees behavior towards the set objectives. There are no laws in social science that parallel the laws in the natural science. A law in social science is a universal generalization about a class of facts. A fact is an observed phenomenon, and observation means it has been seen, heard or otherwise experienced by researcher. A theory is a systematic explanation for the observations that relate to a particular aspect of social life or an industrial life. Thus hypotheses are specified expectations about empirical reality which are derived from propositions. Social research involves testing these hypotheses to see if they are true.

The Human Relations School of thought:
Much of the basic thinking behind the scientific administration approach was developed prior to 1930. Around 1930 a new school of thought about administrative organization began to emerge. It was a school of thought that took issue with some of the assumptions of scientific administration, in particular those assumption that tended to treat the industrial worker as a mechanistic extension of industrial production technology, to be manipulated and motivated by the scientific management of financial incentives, working conditions and other factors.14

Undoubtedly, these sorts of factors do make a difference to worker performance. But are they the whole story? The proponents of this new school of thought not emphasized the importance of industrial production of the kinds of social ties or group life workers developed at the work place. This new school of thought, often considered the second major school of thought in organization theory in the United States of America, was

called the human relations approach.

Michael D. Mumford of The University of Oklahoma, Norman, USA., describes that with rapid changes in technology and global competitions, the success of many organizations has become progressively more dependent on their ability to bring innovative ideas in the process of their work and for the work itself. He further states that ultimately, however, innovation depends on the generation of creative, new ideas. Accordingly, the literature bearing on the nature of creativity is reviewed to identify the conditions that influence innovation. Observations about the nature of creativity are used to draw conclusions about the kind of human resource management strategies that might enhance creativity.

It is argued that organizations should consider multiple interventions that take into account the individual, the group, the organization and the strategic environment when selecting interventions intended to enhance creativity.

According to Atwater and Waldman (2001), organizations need to find individuals who can meet the ever-changing demands of the local and global economy. Because the population of incoming workers is much smaller than the population exiting, organizations will not be able to replace leaders with leaders. Instead they will have to develop them from their existing pool of employees. The challenge will be to develop technically talented employees into employees who are prepared for managerial decision-making and the leadership demands of the broader organizations. Many of these leaders have technical skills (hard skill) pertinent to their area of specialization, but not the soft skills necessary to lead a team and influence an organization. Soft skills, including communication, empathy, integrity, etc., need to be developed in order to transition employees to high level leaders. Organizations are now too flat to learn this by trial and error as the previous generation did. Soft skills deal with behaviors and result in performance, they are often more difficult to change than hard skills because knowledge is only step one. Soft skills impact habits that individuals have learned throughout their life. In order to change behaviors habits have to be recognized. Change is a two step forward one step back proposition that requires support. He says that various studies
have shown that change management is most effective where accompanied with coaching, courses and encouragements for at least a year. He further states that follow-ups are also beneficial because they provide measurable feedback on the progress that is being made and allow organizations to gauge the return on their investment, which leads to organization development.

Organizational development is the process through which an organization develops the internal capacity to most efficiently and effectively provide its mission work and to sustain itself over the long term. This definition highlights the explicit connection between organizational development work and the achievement of organizational mission. This connection is the rationale for doing organizational development work. Organizational Development, according to Richard Beckhard (1969) – Professor at MIT Sloan School Of Management, defines as: a planned effort, organization – wide, managed from the top to increase organization effectiveness and health, through planned interventions in the organizations ‘processes’, using behavioral science knowledge. According to Warren Bennis – Professor – University of Southern California, organizations development is a complex strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges. According to Warner Burke, Organizational Development is not just anything done to better an organization, it is a particular kind of change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result. He further states that organizational development involves organizational reflection, system improvement, planning, and self-analysis. At the core of Organizational Development is the concept of an organization, defined as two or more people working together towards one or more shared goals. Development in this context is the notion that an organization may become more effective over time at achieving its goals. Organizational Development is a long range effort to improve organization’s problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture, often with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science. Thus many schools of thoughts in the context of developing the effectiveness of individual or group performance through various means of approaches are the subject concerned towards strategies of innovation.
Strategies of Innovation:

More fundamentally, the object has been to achieve a profile of people that matches the needs of their markets, and responsibilities have been devolved where possible. Line of reporting has been reduced. A new culture of initiative and customer orientation has been developed and is still growing\(^\text{15}\). Innovation strategies represent a subtle re-orientation of strategic thinking. Successful business in the future is likely to be those that see innovation in a broad sense-capable of being implanted across the organization as needed. Strategic management establishes an operational link between the enterprises overall strategy and more precise aspects of management, such as human resources management. The systematic vision has emerged over the years as a vision that integrates all of the factors that are relevant to decision-making and management within the enterprise. According to Eliasson (1999 – 2000) Employees, competencies and knowledge constitute a competitive advantage. The firms can be presented as a competent team where a tacit organizational competence improves the productivity through selecting and allocating competent people. Using individuals or systems of human resources practices like decentralization, interdisciplinary teams, delegation of responsibility, performance pay, training etc, and the strategic innovation contributes to firm performance. New types of incentives and procedures permitting an efficient knowledge creation and sharing are required to encourage people in a industry. Author Boxall, P (1992) wrote that the primary goal of strategic innovation as human resource management is to find better ways of practice to improve the overall employee motivation and productivity. In an environment of increasing uncertainty, this is perhaps one certainty that can be assured\(^\text{16}\). F.W.Taylor, in his writing of shop management, made it clear that the key concept which he believed in and defended was not any particular wage system; instead it was the principle of standardization based on scientific investigation of real, tangible and measurable results\(^\text{17}\).

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17. F.W.taylor, Frank Barkley, Copley (1923), Father of Scientific Management – Vol II P 173
Scientific management:

When he produced his authoritative statement on scientific management in 1911, Taylor represented his system as offering the key to future national prosperity in the following terms. The principal object of management should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee. The words maximum prosperity is used, in their broad sense, to mean not only large dividends for the company or owner, but the development of every branch of the business to its highest state of excellence, so that the prosperity may be permanent. In the same way maximum prosperity for each employee means not only higher wages than are usually received but, of more importance still, it is also means the development of each (worker) to a state of maximum efficiency…it would seems so self-evident that maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with maximum prosperity for the employee, ought to be the two leading objects of management. Taylor’s system was the desire to rationalize and standardize production techniques in the interests of economy, efficiency and mutual prosperity. His primary point of interest was the individual worker pursing individual goals and motivated by incentive payments.

No effective organization or employee development can take place unless it is first established how people learn. This is quite complex. It is all too easy to get drawn into preferred learning styles and learning cycles before considering the condition that must first exist if effective learning and therefore development enhancement and advancement are to take place. Wayback in 1988 J.Sterling Livingston described the Pygmalion effect in management. He said, it is the way managers treat their subordinates in subtly influenced by what they expect of them. The Pygmalion effect enables the employees to excel in response to managers expectation that they are capable of performing well and expected to achieve the targets. Basically it is the power of expectation, which means that every manager has expectations of the subordinates who report to him. These expectations are communicated to them consciously or unconsciously. In turn subordinates pickup these expectations, understand them and perform the ways that are 

consistent with the expectations of the manager. Here the role of manager is very sensitive and important. It can also undermine the subordinate performance if subtle communication from the manager tells subordinate the opposite. Manager has to be fully skilled in this aspect as how is to communicate his expectations in a highly positive way. If not this effect is capable of making deep cuts in into self-esteem of subordinates. Manager has to help subordinates in improving their self-concept to make them believe that they can contribute well and their performance rise to the level of their own expectations. Subordinates self-confidence will grow, their capabilities, willingness and commitments will develop and their productivity will also be high. More often such managers are known as Pygmalion

Capability, willingness, commitment, rewards and equality:

* Those involved must be capable of learning.
* People must want to learn and develop
* Closely related to motivation and willingness is commitment.

Organizations expect increased output and loyalty and staff expect increased pay, opportunities, career and occupational development, and the specific chance to put into practice what they have learned. For an effective learning and development, environment to be created and maintained, the principle of fundamental equality of opportunity and treatment for all is essential. To enrich these processes, motivation plays a very vital role.

Motivation:

The simplest way to see the process of motivation is to see it as a stimulus – response mechanism. The individual perceives a particular stimulus, say, interesting work or pay and responds by working harder. Managers manipulate the stimuli in order to change the behaviors. It is not, alas, as simple as this. When we look at the process it is easy to see how needs theories and self theory work together through the medium of perception

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According to Geen, motivation refers to the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of human behavior. A reward, tangible or intangible, is presented after the occurrence of an action (i.e., behaviour) with the intent to cause the behavior to occur again. This is done by associating positive meaning to the behavior. Studies show that if the person receives the Reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decreases as duration lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit. Rewards can also be organized as extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are external to the person; for example, praise or money. Intrinsic rewards are internal to the person; for example, satisfaction or accomplishment. Some authors distinguish between two forms of intrinsic motivation: one based on enjoyment, the other on obligation. In this context, obligation refers to motivation based on what an individual thinks ought to be done. For instance, a feeling of responsibility for a mission may lead to helping others beyond what is easily observable, forwarded, or fun. Intrinsic motivation is when people engage in an activity, such as a hobby, without obvious external incentives. Intrinsic motivation has been studied by educational psychologists since the 1970s and numerous studies have it to be associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students. There is currently no universal theory to explain the origin or elements of intrinsic motivation, and most explanations combine elements of Fritz Heider’s attribution theory, Bandura’s work on self-efficacy and other studies relating to locus of control and goal orientation. Though it is thought that students are more likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

- Attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control.
- Believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals.
- Are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades.

In knowledge sharing communities and organizations, people often cite altruistic reasons for their participation, including contributing to a common good, moral obligation to the group, mentorship or ‘giving back’. In work environments, money may provide a more powerful extrinsic factor than the intrinsic motivation provided by an enjoyable workplace. There are various theories in this context and some is hereby listed below for better understanding of the concepts.
Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs theory is the most widely discussed theory of motivation. The theory can be summarized as thus:

- Human beings have wants and desires which influence their behavior; only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, satisfied needs cannot.
- Since needs are many, they are arranged in order of importance, from the basic to the complex.
- He person advances to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.
- The further the progress up the hierarchy, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show.

The needs, listed from basic (lowest, earliest) to most complex (highest, latest) are as follows:

- Physiological
- Safety and security
- Social
- Self esteem
- Self actualization
- Self Transcendence

Frederick Herzberg’s two-factor theory, aka intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in job satisfaction, but if absent, lead to dissatisfaction. He distinguished between:

- Motivators; (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, and
- Hygiene factors; (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) that do not motivate if present, but, if absent, result in de-motivation.

The name Hygiene factors is used because, like hygiene, the presence will not make you healthier, but absence can cause health deterioration. This theory is sometimes called the Motivator-Hygiene Theory.
According to Clayton Alderfer, expanding on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, created the ERG theory (existence, relatedness and growth). Physiological and safety, the lower order needs, are placed in the existence category, while love and self esteem needs are placed in the relatedness category. The growth category contains our self-actualization and self-esteem needs.

According to Edwin A. Locke (1976), Professor of motivation and leadership at the Robert H. Smith School of Business at the University of Maryland, College Park. Goal–setting theory is based on the notion that individuals sometimes have a drive to reach a clearly defined end state. Often, this end state is a reward in itself. A goal’s efficiency is affected by three features; proximity, difficulty and specificity. An ideal goal should present a situation where the time between the initiation of behavior and the end state is close. This explains why some children are more motivated to learn how to ride a bike than mastering algebra. A goal should be moderate, not too hard or too easy to complete. In both cases, most people are not optimally motivated, as may want a challenge (which assumes some kind of insecurity of success). Specificity concerns the description of the goal in their class. The goal should be objectively defined and intelligible for the individual. A classic example of a poorly specified goal is to get the highest possible grade. Most children have no idea how much effort they need to reach that goal.

But Elton Mayo (1933) found out that the social contacts a worker has at the workplace are very important and that boredom and repetitiveness of tasks lead to reduced motivation. Mayo believed that workers could be motivated by acknowledging their social needs and making them feel important. As a result, employees were given freedom to make decisions on the job and greater attention was paid to informal work groups. Mayo named the model the Hawthorne effect. His model has been judged as placing undue reliance on social contacts at work situations for motivating employees.

Ask any group of people to do a job for a reward and they all react in a different way. Not only does motivation vary between individuals but they respond differently to the same stimulus. This offers us a clue that the relationship between the content and process
may explain the actual differences between content and process that we see and thus be the results in war of talent\textsuperscript{21}.

The war for talent describes the elements of a new more deliberate approach to talent management. It proposes a way to analyze and strengthen the value proposition that the Company offers its managerial talent. It describes more proactive strategies for recruiting and developing leadership talent. And it recommends that leaders invest heavily in the ‘A’ performers, affirm the ‘B’ performers, and improve or remove the ‘C’ performers.

From their research including survey of 13,000 executives at more than 120 companies and case studies of 27 leading companies, the authors discovered compelling evidence that better talent management leads to better performance. On average companies that did a better job of attracting, developing and retaining highly talented managers earned greater points and higher return to share holders through revealing case examples the authors show leaders at all levels what they can do to improve the way they manage talent and strengthen the talented pool around them. Doing so will not only improve their company’s performance; it will make them better leaders as well as the great managers\textsuperscript{22}.

Over the years behavior scientists has observed that some people have an intense need to achieve, others, perhaps the majority, do not seem to be as concerned about achievement. This Phenomenon has fascinated David C. Mc Clelland (1953) “The Achievement Motive”. For over twenty years he and his associates at Harvard University studied this urge to achieve. Mc Clelland’s research led him to believe that the need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from other needs. More important, the achievement motive can be isolated and assessed in any group. Mc.Clelland says that Achievement – Motivated people take the middle ground, preferring a moderate degree of risk because they feel their efforts and abilities will probably influence the out come. In business, this aggressive realism is the mark of the successful Person. He also states

that rewards, to achievement - motivated people, are valuable primarily as a measurement of their performance. It provides them with a means of assessing their progress and comparing their achievements with those of other people. He says that the Achievement-Motivated people give larger importance to the feedback. He also says that they respond favorably to information about their work. He further says that most of the Achievement - Motivated people might want job-relevant feedback. They want to know the score of their achievement.

Mc Clelland also claims from his research that Achievement-Motivated people get habituated to spend larger time thinking about doing things better. Mc Clelland also says Achievement-Motivated people can be the back bone of most organizations, but what can be said about their potential as managers? He further says that people, with high need for achievement get ahead because as individuals they are producers they get things done. He also further clarifies that when they are promoted, when their success depends not only on their own work but on the activities of others, they may be less effective. Since they are highly job-oriented and work to their capacity, they tend to expect others to do the same. As a result, they sometimes lack the human skills and patience necessary for being effective managers of people who are competent but have a higher need for affiliation than they do. In this situation, their over emphasis on producing frustrates these people and prevents them from maximizing their own potential. Thus he says, while Achievement-Motivated people are needed in organizations, they do not always make the best managers unless they develop their human skills. Mc Cleland’s concept of Achievement-Motivation is also related to Hertzberg’s motivation – hygiene theory saying that the People with high achievement motivation tend to be interested in the motivators (the job itself). He also further states that being a good producer is not sufficient to make an effective manager or a great manager.

Improving morale of the employees has been one of the hot pursuits Human Resources Development. In spite of many studies having been done in different relevant areas connected to employees motivation, the answer to the question as to what keep the employees morale high remains elusive, while good morale induces voluntary
contribution of efforts for the betterment of the organization, bad morale breeds grievances, frustration and induces lack of interest in contributing to the betterment of the organization.

The cherished good of all HR practitioners is to build an organization in which all the employees enjoy good morale. For this to happen all that needs to be done is quite simple. “Take care of people, the whole take care of itself”. A few years ago the Gallup Organization decided to initiate a multi-year research project to try and define a great work place. Firstly they concentrated on employees, asking ‘what do the most talented employees need from their work place’. Their research yielded many discoveries, but the most powerful was this. Talented employees need great managers.

A talented employee may join a company because of its charismatic leader, company brand, its generous benefits and its world class training programs, but how long that employee stays and how productive he is while he is there is determined by his relationship with his immediate superior. This simple discovery lead them to do the second research effort. How do the world’s greatest managers find, focus and keep the talented employees. However, the first task was to define what a great work place was, A great workplace is a place where people are happy and perform outstandingly, is what according to author Buckingham.

According to Johanna Rothman and Esther Derby(2005) - Behind closed Doors: Secrets of great Management, says because managers amplify the work of others, the human costs of bad management can be even higher than the economic costs. He says that people who were invaluable to the organization leave because they refused to work with poor managers-managers who depressed morale and productivity. The author says that some people think management is all about the people, and some people think management is all about the tasks. But great management is about leading and developing people and managing tasks. Further says, if you want to lead people, you need

to know them: their unique strengths, aspirations, and patterns of behavior. If you want to manage work, you need to see what people are doing and understand how it fits into the context of the group’s mission. You need to learn three things when you enter a new organization or job.

- Who the people are – their strengths and interests – and what they are working on.
- The stated mission of the group and how the group provides value.
- How the group fits into the larger organization.

According to Julie Fuimano, the elements of a great manager, there are fewer areas in which great managers excel. She says the great manager must learn to incorporate these four elements into their management style and they will have a productive team with fewer problems, reduced turnover, decreased stress and a more fulfilled work life – for him and his staff!

- Selecting the Right People: The best managers know that in order to meet the goals of the department, they must select people with the right stuff. Choosing well is probably his most important duty as a manager. When people with the right talent are chosen, then he, as the manager, can focus his energy on creating an environment where his staff can excel. The right talent means having the capacity, the attitude and the aptitude required for the position. Experience, while helpful, is not as important as talent. If those on your team have the right education, then you can develop their skills. But if they’re not the right fit, if they have a poor attitude, have a motivational problem, lack the capacity to perform the work or lack the desire for achieving excellence, then his department suffers.

- Set Clear Performance Expectations: Setting clear expectations for results and for levels of excellence sets the standard for the work environment he requires. Those on his team went to know what to do it and the level of quality that is demanded of them. This means, they want an authority figure to give them clear directions and focus, and a vision of what the end result should look like. When his staff is not clear about what standard to follow or what the vision is, they do what they think is appropriate. Assumptions are never a good strategy for running a department. Employees may or may not meet the standards a manager want for, or that’s expected of, but without clear guidelines, employees will waste time and
- energy guessing at what’s needed of them. As a result, they may be great at doing the wrong things right, but that won’t move a manager closer to meeting their objectives. When clear guidelines set, then staffs knows exactly what is expected of them. By explaining standards of excellence, employees know what to aspire to. Thus the social research of these natures of problems helps supports the decision to initiate productive measures to bring out the great work place where people feel happy to perform in their job.

Social Research:

The experiment is the quintessential scientific method. Our stereotyped image of a scientist is a person dressed in a white coat working in a laboratory. He or she proving some mixture into a test tube, setting it over a fire, watching it change (color or whatever), and recording these observations. And we have it essentially right. The social scientific experiment, however far from the chemist’s laboratory it seems to be, essentially follows the same scientific model. It sets up (or isolates for observation) a condition in order to be able to observe how one factor identified as the stimulus, or independent variable (the heat of the Fire), will bring about a change in another factor, identified as the response, or the dependent variable (the composition or other characteristics of the mixture in the test tube). Of course, the scientist still has some of the original mixture in another tube which was not heated so that he or she can compare the qualities of the heated mixture to those of the unheated mixture. This little experiment possesses the three primary qualities of a classical scientific experiment. Independent and dependent variables, pretest and post test, experimental group and control group.

The object of the experiment is to determine what (if any) effect can be identified in the dependent variable as being due to the treatment of the independent variable. The reason for having measures taken before the experiment (pretest) and compared with measures taken after the introduction of the independent variable (post test) is to try to isolate the

specific effects of the stimulus. The reason for making observations as part of the sample which has not undergone the experimental treatment (the experimental group) is to see how different the experimental group is from a group which was not exposed to the experimental treatment. Again this distinction between experimental and control groups helps isolate the experimental effects. Further Scientific method refers to the body of techniques for investigating phenomena, acquiring new knowledge or correcting and integrating previous knowledge. It is based on gathering observable, empirical and measurable evidence subject to specific principles of reasoning. A scientific method consists of the collection of data through observation and experimentation, and the formulation and testing of hypothesis. Scientific research propose hypothesis as explanations of phenomena, and design experimental studies to test these hypothesis\textsuperscript{25}.

Since IBN al-Haytham (Alhacen, 965-1039), a pioneer of scientific method, the emphasis has been on seeking truth. Truth is sought for its own sake. And those who are engaged upon the quest for anything for its own sake are not interested in other things. Finding the truth is difficult, and the road to its rough. Scientific methodology has been practiced in some form for at least one thousand years. Social research refers to research conducted by social scientists (Primarily within sociology and social psychology) but also within other disciplines.

According to Charles C.Ragin, an American sociologist and professor of University of Arizone, Social research involved the interaction between ideas and evidence. Ideas help social researchers make sense of evidence, and researchers use evidence to extend, revise and test ideas. Social research thus attempts to create or validate theories through data collection and data analysis, and its goal is exploration, description and explanation. Social research aims to find social patterns of regularity in social life and usually deals with social groups (aggregates of individuals), not individuals themselves (although science of psychology is an exception here). It is an applied research attempts to influence the real world.

\textsuperscript{25} Isaac Newton “The system of the world”-University of California Press P 794 – 796
Empirical social science research, as we know it today, began a little more than 100 years ago. The early social scientists especially in psychology and sociology were impressed by the progress of natural sciences, especially physics and chemistry, and set out to imitate their use of the scientific method in building knowledge. They saw the core of the scientific method as two things – the experiment and measurement. The experiment was seen as the basis for establishing cause-effect relationships between variables, and its variables had to be measured. Whereas in quantitative social research, the experiment includes a strategy, designed to achieve certain comparisons. Quantitative research design can vary from extremely interventionist to non-interventionist. Qualitative research design is generally non-interventionist.26  

Research in social science is the quest for data, for detailed, factual knowledge of human Beliefs, opinions and attitudes, as well as patterns and styles of life-familial, occupational, Political, religious and so on that has made the use of surveys and polls another of the major tendencies in the sciences of this century. Research in social sciences, as in other field, is a search for knowledge. It provides assistance in making reasonable decisions27.  

One who is not fully conversant with what has gone before has little chance of making worthwhile contributions. Therefore a researcher has to survey the available literature relating to his field of study. It is reviewed to gain background knowledge of the research topic and to identify data sources used by other researchers and to learn how others structured their reports.  

The art of questionnaire designs involves thinking ahead about the research problem, what the concepts means and how we will analyze the data. The questionnaire should reflect both theoretical thinking and an understanding of data analysis. Before dealing with the specifics of question wording and answer formats is important to highlight six  

broad principles that must be built into question design, like reliability, validity, discrimination, response rate, same meaning for all respondents and relevance. Wording of the questions must be simple, shortened, precise etc…Thus goals and strategies are becoming very important. There are two basic goals in the design of survey and census instruments, that is., to obtain relevant information, and to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected. To obtain relevance the investigators must specify the precise types of data required in the study and then design the questionnaire or interview schedule accordingly. Securing reliable and valid data is an objective requiring attention at every step in the research, from the initial conceptualization of the question under investigation to the final analysis of the information collected.

**Experimental Method:**

In practice, the use of experimental method in social research is much complicated. There are practical difficulties to random sampling, losses of cases and shrinkage in numbers in each group during the period of observation, and limitations connected with applications of probability tests as a means of estimating the significance of the results. Nevertheless and despite the difficulties, experimental approach is now playing an important part in research in social sciences. Chaplin pioneer and authority on experimental design took up this challenge and began to make observations under controlled conditions and to use the experimental method of modern science

There can be no short-cut to truth, as Karl Pearson said in his grammar of science, no way to gain knowledge of the universe except through the gateway of scientific method. Science is a method for gaining systematic knowledge through application of carefully planned controlled observations under conditions that are public and hence repeatable, followed by attempts at co-Ordination of results and precise communication of the same. This method is applied in every scientific discipline no matter what their subject

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matters are. To study human behavior scientifically, one must therefore be able to describe the circumstances under which they occurred, the behavior itself and communicate these as precisely and accurately as possible.

A social scientist like a physical and biological scientists, must measure behavior (a description of behavior also pre-supposes measurement of some kind), state what factor influence this behavior and by what degree. Measurement, in simple words, is the assignment of numerals or other symbols or signs (Male/Female, occupational categories, for example) to objects or events according to a set of operational rules.

Measurement helps understand the confidence and build morale of an employee. The spirit, hope and confidence are what called as morale. Morale is a mental state of a person. Poor morale is not cured by a motivational speech. Often real problem is lack of personal accountability 30.

Thus this method is one in which a researcher manipulates a variable (anything that can vary) under highly controlled conditions to see if this produces (causes) any changes in a second variable. The variable or variables, that the researcher manipulates is called the Independent variable while the second variable, that are measured for changes, is called the dependant variable. Independent variables are some times referred to as antecedent (Preceding) conditions. Under industrial sociology unless there is a determined driving force it is highly difficulty to build morale, job satisfaction among the employees. The state of the spirit of a person or group as exhibited by confidence, cheerfulness, discipline and willingness to perform assigned tasks leads to employee satisfaction.

Employee Satisfaction:
Employees who are interested in the work they perform and possess the personality profiles associated with success, tend to be more satisfied with their jobs, and are less

30. Dr. Peter A. Jacobson, Ph.D – Experiemental Research Method
likely to seek other opportunities for employment. For employees to be satisfied, it needs some driving force, and the driving force can be termed as motivation.

Motivation is the driving force in one’s lives. It comes from a desire to succeed. Without success there is little pride in life, no enjoyment or excitement at work and at home. The business is becoming highly competitive and constantly changing environment, which is defying quantitative forecasting, is forcing the organizations to leverage human resources to differentiate and bring in sustained competitive advantage. So with Human Resource becoming the cutting edge of the organizations motivating today’s employees assume added importance. Motivation encourages people and brings out the best in them or through intimidation and threats. Measuring success is the process of motivation. Motivation builds morale. The state of the spirits of a person or group as exhibited by confidence, cheerfulness, discipline and willingness to perform assigned tasks is what we say morale. A good morale of a person will have better job satisfaction. Employees who are interested in the work they perform and possess the personality profiles associated with success, tend to be more satisfied with their jobs, and are less likely to seek other opportunities for employment and also will help in bringing down the labour turnover rate of an organization.

In industrial sociology, evaluation research seeks to measure performance. In social research this will usually involve the evaluation of an organizational strategy or the delivery of a service. Performance may be measured in terms of objective indicators (increased sales, declining absenteeism, increased labour productivity, decreased labour turnover, multi skill abilities developments) or in terms of more subjective perceptions (customer satisfaction, employee contentment or perception of safety). Evolution research is more interested in practical objectives rather than purely theoretical motives. Action research is an extension of evaluation research. Action research is designed to facilitate the development of the goals of an organization rather than simply to measure the level of success in achieving such goals. Such a form of research presumes the goals of the organization and ones the researcher feels it is appropriate for them to become involved in promoting they start proceeding further. In cases like where funding is
involved this may lead to pressure a researchers to accept goals as defined by those in the organization in a position to offer the funds. It should be remembered that organization are not homogeneous and those at the bottom may not see things in quite the same way as those at the top.

Whenever people interact in organizations, many factors come into play. Modern Organizational studies attempt to understand and model these factors. Like all modernist social sciences, organizational studies seek to control, predict, and explain. F.W. Taylor was the first person who attempted to study human behavior at work using a systematic approach. F.W. Taylor (1911) studied human characteristics, social environment, task, physical environment, capacity, speed, durability, cost and their interactions with each other. His overall objective was to reduce or remove human variability. Taylor worked to achieve his goal of making work behaviors stable and predictable. So that maximum output could be achieved. He relied strongly upon monetary incentive systems, believing that humans are primarily motivated by money where as Elton Mayo, an Australian national headed the Howthorne studies at Harvard, in his classic writing in 1931, Human Problems of an industrial civilization, he advised managers to deal with emotional needs of employees at work. Mary Parker Follett (1924), was a pioneer management consultant in the industrial world, and as a writer she provided analyses on workers as having complex combinations of attitude, beliefs, and needs. She told managers to motivate employees on their job performance, a pull rather than a push strategy, the attempts is called organizational development. According to Richard Beck hard, it is defined as a planned effort, organization-wide, managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health, through planned interventions with organization’s processes using behavioural science knowledge 31.

According to Wendell L French and Cecil Bell define organization development at one point as organization improvement through action research 32. Kurt Lewin played a key role in the evolution of organization development as it is known today, as early as world

ward II, Lewin experimented with a collaborative change process (involving himself as consultant and a client group) based on three-step process of planning, taking action, and measuring results. Interventions are structured activities used individually or in a combination by the members of a client system to improve their social or task performance. Thus every action that influences an organisation’s improvement program in a change agent-client system relationship can be said to be an intervention\textsuperscript{33}. In recent years many organizations have attempted to manage organizational performance using balanced score card methodology where performance is tracked and measured in multiple dimensions. Performance is a measure of the results achieved. Performance efficiency is the ratio between effort expended and results achieved. The difference between the current performance and the theoretical performance limit is the performance improvement zone. According to B.F.Skinner, his approach was characterized by empirical observation of measurable behaviour which could be predicted and controlled. It owed its early success to the effectiveness of skinner’s procedures of operant conditioning, both in the laboratory and his behaviour therapy which is now called applied behavior analysis\textsuperscript{34}. Applied behaviour Analysis is the science of applying experimentally derived principles of behaviour to improve socially significant behaviour. Applied behaviour analysis takes what we know about behaviour and uses it to bring about positive change. Behaviors are defined in observable and measurable terms in order to assess behaviour change over time. All these influences change management.

Change management is a structured approach to transitioning individuals, teams, and organizations from a current state to a desired future state. The current definition of change management includes both organizational change management processes and individual change management models, which together are used to manage the people side of change. A number of models are available for understanding the transitioning of individuals through the phases of change management and strengthening organizational development initiative in both government and corporate sectors. A formula for change


\textsuperscript{34} Skinner, B.F (1938)“The behaviour of Organization” New York.D.Appleton – Century Co P-193
was developed by Richard Beckhard and David Gleicher and is sometimes referred to as Gleicher’s formula. The formula illustrates that the combination of organizational dissatisfaction, vision for the future and the possibility of immediate, tactical action must be stronger than the resistance within the organization in order for meaningful changes to occur. Thus organizational change management processes include technique for creating a change management strategy (readiness assessments), engaging senior managers as change leaders (sponsorship), building awareness of the need for change (communications), developing skills and knowledge to support the change (education and training), helping employees move through the transition (coaching by managers and supervisor’s), and methods to sustain the change (measurement systems, rewards and reinforcement). Very early on Donald Schon recognized the need for what is now termed the learning organization. These ideas are further expanded on within his frame work of reflection-in-action\textsuperscript{35}.

The mapping of a process by which this constant change would be coped with management responsibility is to detect trends in the macro environment as well as in the microenvironment so as to be able to identify changes and initiate programs. It is also important to estimate what impact a change will likely have on employee behaviour patterns, work processes, technological requirements, and motivation. Management must assess what employee reactions will be and craft a change program that will provide support as workers go through the process of accepting change. The program must then be implemented, disseminated throughout the organization, monitored for effectiveness, and adjusted where necessary. Organizations exist within a dynamic environment that is subject to change due to the impact of various change triggers, such as evolving technologies. The field of manufacturing is nowadays also confronted with many changes due to increasing and worldwide competition, technological advances and demanding customer (Huang & Mak, 1999). Therefore, efficient and effective change management is also a great importance in this area. Thus, what distinguishes sociology papers from the papers we might write in other subjects is perhaps the biggest challenge

lies in identifying evidence and decoding arguments that the result from research on the structure of human society. Unlike biologists, who might look for the answer to the human condition in our DNA, or historians, who might look for answers in events and texts from our past, sociologists look for answers in the way humans interact. If we are a biologist, we might look for the answers in brain chemistry, or in an anorexic gene. If we are an historian, we might examine trends in body image chronicle that have evolved over the last century. However, as a sociologist, we need to observe the chronicle of a person and his behavior disorders. For which we need to conduct a survey of them, and understand their behavior in the context of the society in which they live. As a result our arguments will take shape after we examine the evidence and see if the explanations for behavior meet the standards of the discipline.